NEW ENGLAND FARMER.

PUBLISHED BY THOMAS W. SHEPARD, ROGERS' BUILDINGS, CONGRESS STREET, (FOURTH DOOR FROM STATE STREET.)

VOL. II. BOSTON, SATURDAY, AUGUST 9, 1823. No. 2.

Farmer's and Gardener's Remembrancer.

[BY THE EDITOR.]

It is supposed that by this time you have completed your haying, and finished the former harvest, and perhaps have leisure and occasion to attend to the process of

Draining, or freeing your land from superfluous moisture.—This is an operation of great importance in agriculture, though comparatively speaking, it has not so strong claims to attention in the United States, where labor is dear, and land is cheap, as in older and more populous countries, where it is necessary that "every rood of ground maintain its man." It is not often advisable to neglect, or half cultivate our dry lands, for the sake of undertaking expensive projects of draining bogs and morasses. But it sometimes happens that labor, skilfully directed, can in no way be so profitably bestowed as in drawing off the superabundant water from a soil which is rendered unproductive by an excess of that element. A piece of ground, which is made useless, and unhealthy, by too much water, may be situated near a farmer's house or barn; or it may be well for the sake of health, safety to his cattle, or for improving the prospect from his place of residence, to drain some particular spots, although there should be no probability that the products, or the additional value of the soil itself will ever compensate for the expense of such draining.

We shall not attempt to give any very elaborate remarks on this subject, nor to enter at all into what may be called the philosophy of draining. We shall say nothing under this head relative to the different strata or layers of substances of which the earth is composed, and the cracks or fissures between them, which form empty caves or reservoirs of water, as the case may be. What has already been published respecting Mr. Elkington's improvements in draining, in our paper, vol. i, p. 409, will suffice, as relates to this branch of the subject, for practical cultivators. Those who wish for a thorough knowledge of the principles of the art of draining, must not only attend to geology and mineralogy, study a number of books written on those topics, but must view the operations of nature in hilly countries, and trace the signs of springs from mountain to valley, follow under ground brooks and rivulets by appearances above ground, which indicate their course; and learn by viewing the shape and materials of the earth's surface what is the probable structure of its interior.

Drains used in farming are of two kinds, open and covered. Drains should be of a size and depth proportioned to the extent of the swamp and the probable quantity of water for which they are designed to be channels. They should generally be carried through the lowest and wettest part of the soil, although it should be necessary, in order to effect that purpose, to deviate from straight lines. Open drains sometimes answer the double purpose of conveying off superfluous water, and of inclosing fields. But they make a hazardous and inconvenient fence without the addition of a bank, hedge or railing. The Farmer's Assistant says, "when a ditch is made for a fence, it ought to be four feet wide at the top, one or less at the bottom, and about two and an half deep; with the earth all thrown out on one side, and banked up as high as possible." Sir John Sinclair states that "it is a general rule regarding open drains, with a view of giving sufficient slope and stability to their sides, that the width at top should be *three* times as much as that which is necessary at the bottom, and in the case of peat mosses or soft soils, it should be such as to allow the water to run off without stagnation, but not with so rapid a motion as to injure the bottom."

But before you attempt to drain a piece of land, it will be well not only to calculate the cost, but to ascertain the nature of the soil which it is proposed to render fit for cultivation. If the subsoil or under layer be clay, the swamp may be worth draining, though there should be no more than six inches of black soil or mud over it, for the clay and the mud mixed will make a fertile soil. But if the sub-soil or under stratum be gravel or white sand, it will not, in common cases, be best to undertake draining unless the depth of black mud be as much as from fifteen to eighteen inches deep; for the soil will settle after draining and be less deep than it was before. But the situation of the land to be drained may authorize some variation from these general rules.

The manner of draining a swamp is as follows: Beginning at the outlet, pass a large ditch through it, so as mostly to cut the lowest parts. Then make another ditch quite round it, near to the border, to cut off the springs which come from the upland, and to receive the water that runs down from the hills upon the surface, in great rains. These ditches should be larger or smaller, in some proportion to the size of the swamp, the shape and size of the hills which surround it, and other circumstances, which might tend to greater or less quantities of water's being occasionally or generally led to the ditches. If the swamp be large it may be necessary that some smaller cross drains should be cut in several of the lowest parts. The bottom of the main ditches, when the soil is not of an extraordinary depth, must be lower than the bottom of the loose soil; otherwise the soil will never become sufficiently dry and firm."*

It is said by Sir John Sinclair (Code of Agriculture, page 182) that "in all drains, it is a rule to begin at the lowest place, and to work upwards, by which the water will always pass from the workmen and point out the level.—This enables the laborers also to work in coarse weather, and prevents their being interrupted by wet, so early in the season as otherwise might happen."

The mud and other materials, which are dug out of a ditch or drain should not be suffered to lie in heaps or banks by the side of the ditch, but should be spread as equally as possible over the surface of the drained land. In this way the matter taken from the ditches will tend to level the surface of the swamp, will, perhaps, serve in some measure for manure, and will not present any impediment to the passage of the water to the ditches. In some cases it may be advisable to transport the earth which is taken from the ditches, to the farm-yard, or the hog pen, to form a part of that layer, which good farmers generally spread over those places in autumn to imbibe liquid manure or make into compost with dung. In many instances, we are told, that the earth thus dug out of ditches is thought to be worth enough to pay for the expense of digging the ditches.

The American editor of Sir John Sinclair's Code of Agriculture, has the following among other judicious remarks on this important subject. "The most expeditious, effectual, and economical mode of making a drain would undoubtedly be to use oxen, and a *scraper* or ox-shovel, as it is sometimes called; an instrument well known in this country in the making of roads. In some cases this mode might not answer, as in very miry grounds, and lands just cleared of timber. But where lands are very miry, if the process is begun at the outlet of the water, and there indeed it ought always to be begun, the next adjoining portion will generally be made so dry as to allow being trodden upon in a proper season; and in this way a drain may by degrees be carried on towards the centre. In nineteen cases out of twenty, drains may be probably effected in this mode. Where the ground will admit of it, two men and a boy, and two yoke of oxen, will accomplish more business of this sort in a day, than half a dozen men in the same time with only spades and shovels. Wherever the labor of cattle can be substituted in this country, for human labor, policy requires it to be done. The surface of wet and miry lands is usually full of inequalities: if a *scraper* is employed in draining them, the earth taken from the drain is easily landed in any hollow spot which needs to be filled; and if there are no such hollows, or they have already been filled, the earth may be spread over the surface in such a manner as to do the most good. If the earth is not wanted for other purposes, it is recommended to drop and spread it, if practicable, in such a manner as to leave the general surface of the land sloping towards the drain, that the water may the more readily incline towards it and pass off. At some distance below the surface in peat grounds, there is usually found a hard stratum of earth, called in the common language of our farmers *hard-pan*. The hard-pan, if ploughed into, scraped out, and spread on the surface, would greatly improve the texture of such soils. This furnishes another argument in favor of using a scraper in draining, for in no other way can the upper earth taken out of the drains be so cheaply removed, and put on the adjoining; nor in any other way can the hard-pan be so easily broken up and carried off, nor in any other way, oftentimes, can suitable earth be so well obtained for the purpose of spreading it over the surface with a view to improve the texture of the soil. If the object be to pile the earth from the drains into heaps with a view to composts, this purpose is completely accomplished by means of the scraper."

* See Deane's New England Farmer, Art. DRAIN.

Even in cases where no outlet can be obtained, land may be drained to some effect by digging a ditch of considerable breadth and depth, which will serve as a reservoir for the water, and the earth taken from the ditch will, if properly spread, not only make room for the superfluous water, but elevate the surface of the soil. In this way the water may be separated from the land to pretty good purpose. But it is always best if possible to obtain an outlet, which it is desirable may be so low that the water in the ditches may have some motion, lest its stagnation cause unhealthy exhalations.

The preceding remarks are applicable chiefly to draining on a large scale. The following observations taken from an excellent "*Essay on the Principles and Practice of Rural Economy*," by G. W. FEATHERSTONHAUGH, Esq. may perhaps, more frequently apply to practical purposes, than those which recommend processes more laborious and expensive. "In ordinary situations where there are no obstructions above, and the declivity easy, the task is not great nor very expensive; a cut two feet wide made in the right situation, three feet deep, and narrowed to a foot at the bottom, is sufficient to lay the land dry for a great distance, if it is carefully cleaned out every fall; for the distant water will in twelve months make itself small channels beneath the surface of the cut, which will be pressed up by continual percolation: by this simple operation, lands which have never produced any thing are made to produce heavy crops of turnips or grain, and become productive hereafter: the expense, even when the labor is to be paid for, is nothing compared to the benefit. A laborer may easily make three rods a day, which at fifteen dollars per month for board and wages, is about eighteen cents a rod. A cut of this description, with smaller ones leading to it if necessary, is amply sufficient, and will stand to all effective purposes in the place of those expensive methods practised in Europe. If it be an extensive bottom and proper for permanent meadow, the cut may be enlarged to any width at the same expense, by varying the method. The plough and the scraper should be used instead of the spade, taking care to finish the banks with a neat slope to the bottom, by the spade and rake, and sowing a few grass seeds upon it, at a proper season to take root before the freshets come on. If this be done in a proper manner, the grass will grow as well on the slopes and the bottom as on the surface of the meadow, and be cut with as much ease and advantage. Wide drains of this description seldom want cleaning out; the sod prevents the soil washing in. A cut of this description, which I made eight years ago in a piece of interval of 200 acres, has not wanted cleaning out to this moment."

An English writer in remarking on this subject says in substance, that a swamp, which is covered with moss may be injured by draining it too much—that his crops were best when the surface of water in the surrounding ditches was not more than three feet lower than the meadow—that it will be a great advantage to the improved moss-ground if the farmer is able to flood it at proper times, by means of a dam and gate at the outlet. This will greatly add to the fertility of the land, which is drained, but care must be taken not to let the water remain on the ground too long a time, because, though there will be no danger of its re-converting the soil into a bog, so long as there are channels to carry it off, it will be apt to chill and injure the plants.

If a swamp is overrun with bushes, a dam at the outlet, by means of which it may be flooded, will, perhaps, present the best mode of subduing them, which may be effected by flooding in two or three summers. It will besides afford a good method of enriching the soil. The Complete Farmer says "first drain the land, and if there be any heath or turf on it, burn that off, and shape the surface over. Then make a dam at the lowest part, and a sluice, and work the water upon it through the winter. The mud which comes with the land flood will bring a fine sward over it in two or three years, and be afterwards a yearly manure; so that it will bear annual cutting, and besides be good pasture for cattle after the sward has become strong enough to bear them.

There are some drained meadows in the neighborhood of Boston which have dams at their outlets, by means of which the water may be made to cover the surface of the meadow, or stand at such height in the ditches as may be thought necessary to communicate a proper degree of moisture to the soil. In a hot and dry season the water is so far purposely obstructed at the outlet as to stand in the drains within two or three feet of the surface of the meadow. The water generally penetrates every part of the soil in the meadow, as high as the level at which it stands in the ditch, and some degree of moisture is drawn by the heat of the sun, (provided the soil be tolerably open and porous) quite to the top of the ground. This ascent of moisture from the wet ground below is effected by the same principle which causes oil or tallow to rise in the wick of a lighted lamp or candle. If a soil is naturally too wet, by causing water to stand in its immediate vicinity within two or three perpendicular feet of its surface, you will increase the evil more than most people would be aware of; and if a soil is naturally too dry, or is suffering in consequence of a dry season, letting water into ditches or channels two or three or more feet below the top of the ground will give moisture to the whole mass. Thus springs which flow under, but near the surface of the ground, may often be traced by the verdure of the herbage above them; and the banks of rivulets bear aquatic plants and exhibit other marks of moisture for several feet above the ordinary level of the water. A knowledge of this principle may sometimes be of use to gardeners, and lead to perhaps the best way of watering delictate plants, viz. Instead of applying water directly to the roots, let it be poured plentifully into small trenches between or near the rows of the plants to be watered, and it will percolate slowly through the thirsty earth, and in its passage become warmed, imbued perhaps, with particles of manure, and thus answer a better purpose than cold water from a well and a watering pot, applied directly to the plants, at the risk of displacing some of the soil and deranging the economy of the small and fibrous roots.

To destroy Crickets.—Mix some roasted apple with a little white arsenic powdered, and put a little of this mixture into the holes or cracks in which the crickets are; they will eat of it and perish.

FOR THE NEW ENGLAND FARMER.

MR. EDITOR—If you think the following account of the effects resulting from experiments made with Plaster of Paris, can be of any use to the public, you have the liberty of publishing it in your useful paper.

About eighteen years ago I purchased half a bushel of Plaster, with a view of trying it on my land. A part of it I sowed on my mowing, some of it I put on my corn, and a small quantity was left which I put into a box and set away, having very little faith in its utility, and having some fears lest it would eventually injure the land on which it was used.

I could not perceive that it had any effect on my corn, and very little, if any, on my grass, and of course I determined to make use of no more of it.

In the spring of 1813 I wanted the box in which my plaster had been kept for seven years for another use. I thought to myself what shall I do with my plaster, considering it to be good for nothing. I thought I would put it into the road, but at length the thought occurred to me it might possibly do some good, and as there was but a small quantity of it, it could do but very little damage. I sowed it upon a piece of dry grass land which had been mowed for many years, but which produced so little as to scarcely pay the expense of getting the hay. I sowed my plaster about the first of May, and it was but a short time before its effects were clearly to be seen. When I cut my grass I could see exactly where the plaster was sown; it was mostly clover, being thick and very much like rowen. I had a second crop almost as large as the first. The second year the produce was about as good as the first, and the third about half as good as the first and second years, and the fourth the same as it was before any plaster was sowed.

I now make use of plaster on this piece of ground with the same effect as at first. It produced this year a fine crop of grass, principally clover, and now promises fair for a second crop.

The beneficial effects of plaster on pasture land are very great. I have used it in this way eight or ten years. I sow it on the same piece of ground every second year. Five or six pecks to an acre I think sufficient. My pasturing is essentially improved and produces nearly double the quantily of feed than it formerly did. A part of my pasture formerly produced little else than bushes, which I frequently cut, but could not exterminate them, and the land being so moist and rocky as to forbid the use of the plough. This part of my pasture now has quite a new appearance. Since I have commenced sowing plaster upon it I have cut the bushes twice, and they are almost entirely gone. The grass, particularly white clover, grows luxuriantly.

In 1817 I sowed a piece of ground with flax, and on two thirds of it I sowed plaster. The flax on the third part on which I sowed no plaster was not so large by one quarter as the other.

In 1818 I planted a field with potatoes, and manured one half of it, putting a good shovel full of manure in each hill in every second row through the field. The other half I put a spoonful of plaster in each hill. When I dug my potatoes I found the produce of the plastered rows to be full equal to those that were manured.

In 1819 I planted a dry gravelly piece of land

with potatoes, which had become so barren as to be considered almost worthless. I put a spoonful of plaster in each hill, hoed them once, and had an excellent crop of potatoes.

I have now an acre of potatoes growing which I plastered, which look remarkably well and promising. A FARMER.

Worcester, August 1, 1823.

FOR THE NEW ENGLAND FARMER.

MR. EDITOR—The following is founded on fact, and with a little variation, is literally true.

Mr. A. and Mr. B. are two farmers living only eighty rods distant from each other. Their farms each contain about one hundred and twenty acres of land, being of about equal value.

Mr. A manages his farm so as to summer and winter twenty head of cattle and keep them well, and always has a ton or two of good hay left in the spring. He raises two hundred bushels of corn in a year and about the same quantity of English grain. He and his two sons, the one twenty and the other fourteen years of age, perform all the work on the farm, as they hold it a fundamental principle not to hire any labor, unless something special and unforeseen should render it absolutely necessary. This work is always done in season, and much time is gained, which is spent in building stone wall and making other valuable improvements on the farm. He never makes any bluster about his business, but always keeps a steady course, beginning early in the morning and finishing his work in season at night. He says that he chooses to do his own work rather than to hire it done, for if he does it himself it will be done as he wishes to have it, but if he hires it done he will have it to pay for; and there is the expense of boarding, which is something.

He says he is obliged to study economy that he may keep along and gain a little. He will not run into debt, unless necessity compels him so to do, as he thinks it is better for him to do without things that would be convenient, but can be dispensed with, than to buy them on trust, and by and by be under the necessity of selling a yoke of oxen, or a piece of land, to pay his debts. He and his sons drink no ardent spirit on any occasion whatever, for they have learned by experience that they can perform more work and be more robust and hearty without spirit than with it, and by abstaining from the use of it they save enough at least to pay all their taxes, beside the hazard of consequences arising from the danger and force of habit. Thus by prudence and economy he is able to meet all his demands, contribute liberally to the various benevolent objects of the day, and add something to his permanent fund besides.

Mr. B. conducts business in a very different manner. He has as much help of his own as Mr. A., yet his work is always driving him so that he is compelled to hire much extra labor, in order to keep business along. He raises no more grain nor cuts so much hay, nor gets done haying so soon as Mr. A. He makes no essential improvements on his farm, for he says that he can make more by working out with his team than he can to build stone wall and subdue his rough land. He is considered a temperate man, yet it costs him more for ardent spirits than it does to pay his taxes. He says that he cannot work in hot weather, nor does he want his men to work without rum. He is some in debt, and says he cannot bring both ends of the year together, yet he will not deprive himself or his family of the conveniences of life on that account. If himself or his family want any thing which they have not he will buy it and pay for it when he can; so that instead of lessening his debts he is continually adding thereto, and according to the course of things he will sooner or later be obliged to sell a part of his farm to satisfy the demands of his creditors. W.

From the Massachusetts Agricultural Repository.

James Ombrosi, Esq. consul of the United States at Florence, has sent to the Massachusetts Agricultural Society, through William Little, Esq. of Boston, a few pounds of a grass seed, which he calls Erba Medica, and which he says is cut in Tuscany five or six times a year, and is there considered particularly nutritious food for cows or horses. It is chopped up, or in some other way, mixed with hay for cattle. Mr. Ombrosi and Mr. Little will be pleased to accept the thanks of the society for their attention. The seed appears to us to be that of some species of Trifolium, evidently not the broad leaved clover of Flanders, which is on the whole considered the best by European cultivators.

The Flanders clover, however, in our seed stores, is sadly mixed with other *varieties*, and sometimes other *species* of clover. The seeds of the Trifolium officinale, melilot, or yellow Trefoil, are intermixed to so great an extent, that some fields which we have sown with red clover seed, *bought as such in the shops*, are now of a yellow color from the prevalence of the melilot. The worst of it is, that it is an increasing evil. Ten years since the melilot, or yellow clover, was so uncommon, that we examined it as a botanical novelty.

From the American Farmer.

PLANTATION OF TIMBER.

MR. SKINNER—Having lost my mother at an early age, I was sent to her parents, to receive that care which a widowed father could not bestow on my infancy; and being in the vicinity of the Valley Forge, in Chester county, I witnessed the destruction of the timber of that estate, and of several adjoining ones, by the continental army hutted there in the winter of 1777. Every tree was cut down, and all the fence rails taken, to shelter and warm those heroes, who, though unable to prevent Sir William Howe from entering Philadelphia, were willing to brave the inclemency of a winter season, badly clad and badly fed, to keep him prisoner there; so that the proprietors, unable to enclose their grounds immediately afterwards, and scarcely able to purchase fuel, considered themselves utterly ruined. The effect of their complaints remained impressed on my mind, until I went to Europe in 1791, and induced me, while there, to make particular enquiries how those old countries obtained continual supplies of an article so indespensable for domestic and manufacturing purposes.

I learned with astonishment, that there was not probably one single tree in England or France, but had grown from the stump of another tree, which had been planted by the hand of man; or was itself one of those identical monuments of human industry, patience and foresight in planting.

The planting of chesnuts, and most other tree seeds, was as familiar to many, as the planting of corn with us; and except the aquatics, which are grown from cuttings mostly, and the evergreens, whose little seed are put into beds and transplanted, is preserved very much in the same way, both objects requiring a preparation and protection well known to farmers. Of these, however, I have given some details to the Agricultural Society of this State, from a translation of a French treatise, and which they may one day give to the public. The want of timber will not be so much felt in the United States, whilst the increased population is spreading over the immense forests of the west, as to require a knowledge of the science, except as concerns those who are proprietors of grounds on the borders of fresh water streams which render the clearing unhealthy; or others, who have cleared, hilly, broken or stony grounds, fit for timber, and fit for nothing else. But the science of cutting to grow again, if it may be called a *science*, should be known to every farmer, planter or proprietor, because the weight and value of the article will not allow of much transportation; and the advantage of a second growth *on the spot* is superior to trees already grown at *a distance*, if all had means to spare to procure them. There is nothing mysterious, or difficult, or costly, in procuring the second growth of trees of the common kind, and in greater quantities than the first growth, as the experience of every iron master in the country has shown; and indeed, those very farmers about the Valley Forge, who had witnessed the cutting of the timber by the owners of that estate for years, and who were so much alarmed at their situation and prospects in 1778, were, on my return in 1799, abundantly supplied by wood of second growth, and as rich and contented as ever. Patience they found of necessity; observation of what had passed so completely under their eyes, was all that was wanted.

What is most essential here now, perhaps, is a disposition to look to futurity—TO PROVIDE IN TIME; but, I will add, from what I learned and saw abroad,

1. That the felling of trees is confined to the winter season; or rather, to that time in which the sap is under ground.

2. That every tree, young and old, on a certain space, is cut in the same season, for old dead stumps do not re-produce.

3. That they are cut as smooth and level with the ground as possible; and

4. That, while young, they are kept from the browsing of cattle.

Your very obedient servant,
THOMAS W. GRIFFITH.

Baltimore, July, 1823.

Superficial Observers.—There are some persons that never arrive at any deep, solid, or valuable knowledge, in any science, or business of life, because they are perpetually fluttering over the surface of things, in a curious or wandering search of infinite variety; ever hearing, reading, or asking after something new, but impatient of any labor to lay up and preserve the ideas they have gained; their souls may be compared to a looking-glass, that whereso-ever you turn it, it receives the images of all objects, but retains none.

From the Edinburgh Magazine.

ON THE INFLUENCE OF THE MOON UPON THE SEASONS.

Translated from a paper of Olbers, in "Annales de Chimie et de Physique. Fevrier, 1822."

The moon acts upon the earth in a manner certain and demonstrable; for it enlightens our nights, it draws the earth a little from its elliptic orbit, it occasions a small oscillation in the earth's axis, it produces the flux and reflux of the sea, and an analagous but less motion in the atmosphere. But it has been the general opinion of mankind, from time immemorial, that besides these demonstrable effects, the moon according to its different phases, exercises a considerable influence upon the health of mankind, upon animals, upon vegetation, and on chemical operations. Experience alone can throw light upon this subject; for it is *possible* that the moon may have an influence upon our atmosphere, produced by the different forces of attraction which it exercises at different times—and also by its light. Long and well conducted experiments have completely refuted such hypotheses; they have proved that neither the lunar phases, nor the situation of the moon with respect to the sun and earth, have scarcely any influence upon the weather; for no fixed relation whatever can be discovered between them, notwithstanding the vast number of trials and observations which have been made for a great number of years. The result deduced from one series of meteorological observation, are always contradicted by another series: we cite, for example, Howard, who believed he had discovered that the barometer rose most frequently in the quadratures, and that its fall was most common in the syzyges. Cotte, on the contrary, to whom meteorology is so much indebted, and who commenced in order to confirm the remark of Howard, afterwards found by twenty years' observation, that the barometer was the highest at the time of the *new* moons, and lowest at the time of the *full* moons. Lalande and Lamark have drawn from their observations the most opposite result, respecting the effects of the moon in her passage by the plane of the equator. But a decisive proof of the small influence of the moon, appears to me to result from this circumstance, that this influence, by whatever force it may be produced, known or unknown, ought to be the greatest possible between the tropics; however, in the equatorial regions, not a trace of it can be found. In these countries, the heat, the rain, the winds, &c. all depend on the distance of the sun from the zenith of the place, without any regard to the situation or the *phases* of the moon. We may be yet more convinced of the smallness of this influence, if we reflect that the most opposite weather, in different parts, takes place at the same instant of time, and consequently, under the same lunar phase. This fact is determined, with the greatest evidence, by the accounts of the weather which we receive from different places, during the time of an eclipse. M. Bode, for example, has collected the remarks made during the time of a solar eclipse which happened on the 18th Nov. 1816; where we perceive a strong mixture of good and bad weather, without any respect to order, spread, during this day, through a great part of Europe. Professor Brandes, having compared, with great labor, but in a very instructive manner, the variation of the weather, which took place over a great part of the earth's surface, in 1783, found no relation between it and the lunar phases; and if a variation in the weather appeared to coincide with these phases in any one country, no variations, or opposite variations, would take place in other countries. The period of eighteen or nineteen years makes no discovery of any sensible analogy in the variations of the weather during the years equally distant from these intervals.

Some have pretended to have remarked sensible effects produced by the rising of the moon, and by her culmination; but the phenomena cited by them, either do not prove this influence, or are not accurate. Several of our mariners, also hold, that the full moon, when rising, dissipates the clouds; but this prejudice owes its origin to the circumstance, that the clouds commonly disappear during a tranquil evening, and consequently at the rising of the moon, according to a very just remark of M. Brandes. The pretended observation, that a storm cannot approach from the zenith, at the time of the full moon, contradicts itself, for the electric cloud which is at the horizon of one place is at the zenith of another place not many miles distant. But in asserting that the lunar influence upon the seasons is extremely weak, and that it is nearly lost among the other causes which produce a variation in the weather, we are not certain that the moon does not produce some little effect. Let us see what the theory seems to indicate. The moon and the sun produce, twice in twenty-four hours fifty minutes, a flux and reflux, both in the ocean and in the atmosphere; these motions vary with the phases of the moon; they are the strongest in the new and full moons, and the weakest in the first and last quarters. Let us suppose, for example, that the tides of the atmosphere produce a change of .0354 of an inch in the height of the barometer, in the syzygiez; it will produce only half that variation in the quadratures. Now, though these effects are so weak, it is not impossible but that the strong tides at the new and full moon may *dispose* the atmosphere to receive considerable motion. We dare not therefore, declare as absolutely false, the observations which some philosophers pretend to have made, namely: that more storms happen at the time of a new and full moon, than at the quadratures. It is the same with respect to the passage of the moon through the equator, and through the perigee; at these times it may act as an *exciting cause*, although no violent motion be produced by it in the atmosphere.

The moon may also have an influence upon the variation of the weather, in an indirect manner; that is by the motion of the waters of the ocean, at least upon some coasts. It is true, in the open sea, the height of the tides never exceeds three or four feet; but upon the coasts, in bays, and narrow channels, the rise of the tides is much more considerable. At Brest, for example, it rises more than twenty feet, and at Bristol more than fifty. Ought not the motion of these large masses of water to occasion some variation in the atmosphere, especially as they appear to have a small influence on the electricity of the air? The inhabitants of the seacoasts believe it to be a fact, that the changes in the weather, and the force and direction of the wind and clouds, depend on the tides. We may here observe, that the tides of the ocean. and those of the atmosphere, do not happen at the same period. The air being easily moved, and not being hindered by any obstacle, instantly obeys the attractive force of the moon; but the waters of the ocean are more tardy in obeying this force. On this account, the atmospheric tides immediately follow the passage of the moon over the meridian; but high water, in the open sea, does not take place till three hours afterwards; and on coasts, and in bays, it happens still later. It is possible, then, that the *mediate* and *immediate* effects of the moon upon the atmosphere, in some places mutually destroy each other; and this is perhaps the cause why the astronomer Horseley, at Oxford, could not perceive, in the English observations, any relation between the weather and the phases of the moon; while Toaldo, at Padua, believed that he *could distinguish* the moon's influence in the observations made during fifty years at Poleni. Now, though I would not deny but that the results deduced from observations by Toaldo, might be partly true for the climate of Italy, I must still observe, that from the great number of exceptions to this rule, he was himself convinced that the lunar influence was *extremely small.* A series of experiments for many years, has convinced me, that in our climate, where the weather is subject to more considerable and more numerous variations, the rules of Toaldo are entirely wrong. For example, on the 7th Dec. 1813, the full moon coincided with the perigee, and two days after the moon had its greatest northern declination, so that, from the principles of Toaldo, the lunar influence ought to have been the greatest possible; but notwithstanding all this, there was not any sensible change in the weather. I believe, then, that I have *demonstrated*, that the influence of the moon upon the weather is so small, that it is totally lost among the infinite number of other forces and causes which change the equilibrium of our very moveable atmosphere. The influence of the moon upon the weather, and upon the atmosphere, being so insensible, we are entitled very much to suspect its pretended influence, either upon men, animals, or plants. In fact, it is *all of it* due to illusion and prejudice. It is evident the duration of the period of some phenomena exhibited by men in health, agrees only nearly, and never exactly, with the lunar revolutions; and that these phenomena show themselves under every phase of the moon, not only in persons of the same age, and of the same constitution, but also in the same individual. This alone is sufficient to show that the moon has no influence, and all *modern physicians* are agreed on this point.

I have little faith in the observation of Sanctorious; namely, that men in health gain one or two pounds in weight at the commencement of the month, and that they lose as much towards the end. In the same manner, observations made with the greatest care, have induced me to doubt very much the remark cited by the poet Lucilius, and often since repeated: namely, that lobsters, oysters, and other shell-fish, are fatter while the moon is on the increase, than when she is decreasing. A very little attention will convince us of the nullity of this asssertion; especially if we can but credit the remarks made by the able physician, Robault. I have great confidence in the very careful experiments made

by the celebrated agriculturists, Ladquinterie, Nardmann, Reichard, and Hartenfels; also by the great naturalists, Buffon, and Reanmur; who proved distinctly, that the increase or decrease of the moon had no influence, either upon the germination of seeds, or upon the increase of plants, or upon the rapidity of their development, or upon their quality. I have also much difficulty in believing, that the light of the moon produces a particular effect different from that of any other light. The experiments made in Rome, in 1783, by Athan, Cavallon, and repeated by Bertholon de Saint-Lazare, prove nothing respecting lunar light augmenting evaporation; in the same manner I assert, that those of Weitz, made with potash at Lautenberg, prove nothing respecting the lunar rays drawing forth humidity. If, in South America and Batavia, they have such a dread of moon-light, I should attribute the pretended pernicious effects said to be produced, more to the humidity of the air, and to the coldness of the nights, than to the effect of any influence of the moon. Bonitus observed the tetanus to take place at Java most frequently during the night, in the rainy season; and he expressly remarked, that the two terrible diseases so frequent in the East Indies, namely, the cholera morbus and dysentery, most frequently took place during the rainy months of summer. The celebrated Reil observes, that sailors have become incapable of supporting daylight from having slept exposed to the light of the moon. I have, however, never heard from our sailors any complaint of this kind. M. Reil also asserts, that children sleep less tranquilly when the moon is on the increase. Having had no experience on this subject, I cannot speak decidedly as to the truth of it; but, in any case, we would explain it without having recourse to the influence of the moon. I should be glad to know if painters have really remarked that the moon has an effect upon their colors, as they have pretended that it has.* In a word, experience does not prove any particular influence of the moon's phases upon animal organization; and the theory given by R. Mead is absolutely false. I can positively assert that I have always been attentive to this subject, with respect to sick persons, during the long time that I have practised medicine, and that I never perceived any relation between the courses of the moon and my patients, or between their symptoms and the means of effecting cures. Neither have I remarked any influence of the lunar phases, either on diseases caused by worms, or dropsy, tumours, or even on epileptic diseases; I will not, however deny, contrary to so many ancient observations, but that the moon may have some influence in particular diseases.

Among all the instruments we can employ, in order to detect natural agents, otherwise imperceptible, the most sensible, as Laplace has very properly observed, are the nerves, the sensibility of which is often increased by disease. It is by means of the nerves that we can discover the feeble electricity produced by the contact of two metals; and it can only be owing to the extreme sensibility of the nerves, that some sick persons are able to perceive the influence of the moon in particular situations, that influence being so extremely small.

It may also be this circumstance, perhaps, which has discovered to physicians, that there is a relation between the lunar phases and the access of epilepsy and insanity. I dare not decide whether we are to explain in this manner the remarks made by Dickmerbræk and Remuzzini, respecting the pestilential fevers, which raged in the years 1636, 1692, 1693, and 1694. It could, however, be owing to nothing but accident, that so many persons affected with fever died, during the time of the lunar eclipse, which happened on the 21st of January, 1693. The influence of the moon upon the crisis of diseases, taught by Galen, and defended so long in the schools of medicine, is contradicted by experience, at least in Europe; and if Balfour be right, in asserting that there is a connexion between the tides and the access of endemick fevers in India, and that the crisis of fevers happens but at the moment when the luni solar action begins to decrease, we can only so far agree with him, that this effect only takes place near the sea-coast. In general, we must read those authors, who refer so many things to the effects of the moon on diseases, with considerable distrust. It is here, as in many cases of reverie—we only *see* it when we *believe* it. A belief in this influence can only deceive the observer, who, otherwise fond of truth, shares this belief with the sick persons; and thus it is that hope and fear excite in the imagination effects to which the moon does not in any way contribute. Thus, also, it was in former times. People in general were afraid of eclipses of the sun and moon, and believed that these phenomena exercised certain pernicious influences over sick persons, and persons possessed of weak nerves; now, absolutely no sick person perceives the effect, and the physicians pay no attention to it.

* Experiments made at the Royal Observatory at Paris, have proved that the light of the moon condensed by a very powerful lens, had no effect whatever in altering chemical products, though very sensibly and easily affected by the light of the sun.

Note by the French Translator.

Leghorn Hats.—The common redtop grass that grows in our meadows, is superior in durability and color, to the Leghorn straw. This is about the time to gather it. It may be selected by handfuls by following after the mowers, before the grass is shaken out. To bleach it requires a very simple process: Scald and dry the grass two or three times, which takes out the green color—then whiten it still further if you please, by placing it in a tub or barrel, in such a manner as to expose it to the fumes of brimstone; or braid it and then fumigate it, as the milliners do their leghorn bonnets. When we consider that it costs the price of six or eight weeks labor of a girl to purchase a leghorn hat, is it not well worth the while for farmers to let their boys select grass for their sisters and others to braid. Even the largest of the grass makes hats of finer quality than gentlemen commonly wear. More than a million of dollars has been paid for leghorn bonnets within the last year.

Bennington Gazette.

Corn.—To procure a good crop of corn, we would recommend to the farmer to put a good coat of plaster, say about $1\frac{1}{2}$ bushel to the acre, on meadow land, soon after mowing, and turn in the crop of rowen, when grown. In the spring bush it, so as not to disturb the sod—cross-furrow, and dung it in the hill. By this method we believe the worm will be less likely to injure it than when turned over in the spring; the drowth will effect it less; and the corn will be earlier. By this method you have your annual crops, and the land seems to be *restored to its original state.* This plan was taken by a neighbor of ours, who has unquestionably the best corn in the town, if not in the county.—*ibid.*

COMMUNICATED FOR THE NEW ENGLAND FARMER.

MEDICAL SCHOOL AT BOSTON.

The Medical Faculty of Harvard University give notice, that their lectures at the Massachusetts Medical College in Boston will begin on the third Wednesday in November, and be continued daily until the usual termination of the course.

It is presumed that the means, now possessed by this school for promoting and facilitating the acquirement of medical knowledge in all its branches, are equal to those offered by any American college, and commensurate with the advances made by society in the other departments of useful learning. As auxiliary to the several courses of medical instruction, the school is amply provided with apparatus, collections, and opportunities for practical demonstration; which, if aided by industry on the part of the student, are calculated to afford him the same kind of information, as that for which the hospitals and seminaries of Europe are usually visited. These auxiliary advantages consist in a large and select medical library; a cabinet of a thousand anatomical preparations; an ample and well furnished chemical laboratory; a collection of specimens of the materia medica; a suit of models and specimens for illustrating the principles and operations of obstetrics; a course of recent dissections, both public by the professor, and private by the students themselves; and lastly, an opportunity of acquiring practically medical and surgical knowledge at the Massachusetts General Hospital.

The following courses of lectures begin and terminate at the periods which have been specified.

Anatomy and Surgery, by Dr. Warren, fee $20.
Chemistry, by Dr. Gorham, fee $15.
Midwifery and Jurisprudence, by Dr. Channing, fee $10.
Materia Medica, by Dr. Bigelow, fee $10.
Theory and Practice of Physic, by Dr. Jackson, fee $15.

These constitute the regular course of medical instruction preparatory to a medical degree. Students, who choose, have the additional opportunity in the spring season to attend lectures at Cambridge on Mineralogy, Botany, Natural Philosophy, and Philosophy applied to the Arts, as well as on various departments of literature.

As the Massachusetts General Hospital has not been completed so as to be acessible to medical students until within the two last seasons, it may be proper give some account of the opportunity it affords for practical instruction to students during their residence in the city. The wards of the medical departments have always furnished a succession of interesting cases, both acute and chronic, which have been under the care of the professor of the theory and practice of physic. Regular clinical lectures during the winter are given upon these cases, and students are admitted to the patients so far as to become experimentally conversant with the symptoms

of their diseases, the progressive changes which take place, and the operation and influence of medicinal agents.

As is common in large establishments of the kind, many patients resort to the General Hospital to undergo surgical operations, rendered necessary by accident or disease. No other kind of institution affords equal opportunities for acquiring a practical acquaintance with operative surgery. Not only the operations themselves, but the treatment of the cases preparatory and consequent to the operation, and the progress and management of convalescence, may be here studied and observed. The superior conveniences which a well arranged hopital affords for the accommodation of the sick, renders this institution a resort, not only of the poorer class, among whom in a large city, accidents are of frequent occurrence; but of other individuals from a distance, who come with the expectation of relief from chronic maladies requiring surgical treatment.

The following is a record of surgical cases, and of operations performed in the Massachusetts Hospital, by the Professor of Anatomy and Surgery, during twenty months, from the opening of the building in Sept. 1821, to June 1823.

1821.	Sept.	21.	Operation for Prolapsus ani.
	Oct.	18.	Lithotomy.
	"	23.	Operation for Popliteal Aneurism.
	"	25.	Operation of Fistula in ano.
	Nov.	10.	Fractured leg.
	Dec.	9.	Dislocation of the hip in the ischiatic notch.
1822.	Jan.	6.	Fracture of the thigh.
	"	"	Compound fracture of the leg.
	"	30.	Removal of a portion of the tibia.
	Feb.	5.	Amputation of the leg.
	"	19.	Operation for phymosis.
	"	"	Removal of diseased toes.
	March	9.	Fractured leg.
	April	22.	Compound comminuted fracture of leg.
	"	24.	Extirpation of tumour from the breast.
	June	8.	Comminuted fracture of the Os humeri.
	July	17.	Amputation of the breast.
	August	2.	Compound fracture of both patellæ.
	"	30.	Removal of foreign substance from the globe of the eye.
	Sept.	20.	Amputation of the breast.
	Oct.	12.	Extirpation of the parotid gland.
	"	"	Operation for prolapsus ani.
	"	23.	Operation for Fistula in ano.
	Nov.	23.	Operation for Cataract.
	"	28.	Operation for Necrosis.
	"	"	Removing tumour from the foot.
	Dec.	20.	Operation for artificial pupil.
1823.	Jan.	15.	Removing tumour from the side.
	Feb.	5.	Removing fragments of rib.
	"	12.	Operation for cataract.
	"	18.	Operation for Inguinal aneurism, the iliac artery tied.
	"	"	Facial nerve divided for tic douloureux.
	"	25.	Operation for phymosis.
	"	"	Laying open a fistulous ulcer over the ribs.
	"	26.	Inferior maxillary nerve divided for tic douloureux.
	March	6.	Fractured leg.
	"	"	Operation for Cataract.
	April	4.	Operation for Cataract.
	"	29.	Operation for Cataract.
	May	26.	Operation for Necrosis.
	"	21.	Fracture of the thigh.
	"	26.	Operation for Cataract.
	June	9.	Operation for Fistula lachrymalis.
	"	11.	Operation for Cataract.
	"	"	Operation for Cataract.
	"	"	Operation for Eversion of eyelid.

The fee for attendance on the joint medical and surgical practice of the hospital is reduced to ten dollars.

Beside the practice of the hospital, opportunities frequently occur of witnessing the private practice of physicians, such as the condensed population of large cities is peculiarly calculated to afford, where the poorer class is numerous, and many of them the subjects of charitable institutions.

Board in the city may always be obtained at from three to four dollars per week. The medical class of the two last years has consisted of about eighty students.

Boston, June, 1823.

NEW ENGLAND FARMER.

SATURDAY, AUGUST 9, 1823.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS TO ADVISERS.

Some of our friends, subscribers and others, have, from time to time, favored us with goodly advice and gracious admonition, with respect to the mode of conducting our paper, which deserve respectful notice, and our tribute of thanks. We beg leave, however, to accompany our acknowledgments with the exposition of certain reasons, why we cannot always altogether comply with the wishes of many, who have been so obliging as to point out to us what they suppose to be at once the path of our duty and our high way to popularity. They say that our paper would be much more acceptable to the public in general, were it not for the dry, uninteresting, and wire-drawn articles with which column after column is crowded, to the almost total exclusion of those light and amusing matters which alone can give a charm to a periodical work. They cannot endure a "lengthy" piece, especially if it requires to be read over twice in order to be comprehended. They wish for short and pithy items, which contain a little of every thing, like the catalogue of an auctioneer.—They would have us tell them all that is deserving of the attention of the man of the world, the merchant, the mechanic, &c. as well as the complete farmer, in a few words, which shall be very appropriate, and yet so comprehensive as to embrace all that ought or can be the subject of thought, or call for the exercise of the human faculties. Scientific topics, and details of processes relating to useful but homely arts, they expect us to treat in such a manner as to arrest the attention of all classes of readers like Sir Walter's novels.

Others of our friendly dictators have taken the trouble to let us know, in substance, that if we intend to render ourselves agreeable to the more astute and sensible part of the human species, we must pay a little more homage to the ladies of Helicon. They seem to wish us to give directions for salting beef in "witty Hudibrastics," and tell the motherly house-wife how to save her bacon in galloping anapæstics, like

"I saw a man catch a fish with a line that was terribly tangled,"

or in ambling iambics and strutting spondees, like

"Stay your rude steps whose throbbing breasts infold,
The legion fiends of glory or of gold."

Some well-wishers have given us both oral and written information that they are "absolutely tired to death" with our endless essays on the breeds and diseases of cattle, making manure, digging ditches, planting potatoes, &c. &c. which cause our papers to be as dull as a merchants' ledger, and disagreeable as a dose of ipecacuanha, before breakfast. Others complain that we are apt to be a little too learned, and soar somewhat above the comprehension of readers in general. That we sometimes make use of ear-boring and jaw-cracking words, which are all Greek to farmers—that to address our disciples in an unknown tongue is hardly orthodox, and cannot be useful.

We shall briefly take notice of some of these topics of complaint, but have not room, nor leisure, nor inclination to enter at large into our own vindication. With regard to long articles, we beg leave to observe that our main object, in the tracts complained of, has been *utility* and *not* amusement. In giving directions relative to processes and modes of proceeding in tillage and affairs of rural economy, it is generally necessary to be minute and particular to prevent mistakes, and make our meaning *perfectly* understood. If we do not tell our readers all, we may as well tell them nothing at all relating to these things. It will not do to set down a part and leave the reader to *guess at* the rest. Perspicuity is all important in matters which relate to useful arts, and it sometimes becomes necessary to relate what every body knows, who has the least acquaintance with the subject, in order to introduce what is not generally known. Count Rumford, Dr. Anderson, and many other writers on topics of rural and domestic economy, have been found fault with, and we think unjustly, for writing long articles and dealing too much in details with regard to subjects which they have treated, very much to the benefit of mankind. The sententious and aphoristical mode of writing is very improperly applied to topics where science is made the hand-maid of useful arts. Besides, we would take the liberty to tell these critical gentlefolk that long articles are, now-a-days, very fashionable—all the rage in the Edinburgh, and quite the ton in the Quarterly Review. With regard to wit, which some of our readers acknowledge to be their chief object of pursuit, whenever they condescend to read, we must tell them that wit and humor are out of place in scientific articles. It is true, we sometimes attempt something of the kind in subjects of agricultural interest; but in thus doing, are actuated by the same principle which would lead us to give a piece of sugar-candy to a wayward child to induce him to learn his lesson. We yield a little to the bad taste of some

readers, and pursue a good end by means which we are conscious would not bear the test of correct criticism.

As relates to being sometimes too learned for many of our readers, we shall borrow the buckler of Mr. LOWELL, as displayed in the last number of the Massachusetts Agricultural Journal, for his shield is sufficiently capacious and impenetrable to defend us as well as the conductors of that very valuable publication. "We are reproached with introducing articles, which are above the capacity of common farmers. If it be intended as an intimation that we devote too large a proportion of this work to philosophical agriculture, we deny the fact; we always give the preference to home-bred, practical essays and experiments. But we are not ready to admit that the introduction of rational and scientific speculations, such as those of Kirwan and Davy, is inexpedient. Massachusetts has scarcely a town, which does not furnish educated men. Knowledge must be first communicated to them, and from them it will inevitably reach their less informed neighbors." In making use of words not of common occurrence, we have commonly introduced other words of the same meaning to explain them. Thus, if we use the word hydrogen, we usually accompany it with the words [inflammable air,] or if we want the word oxygen, we explain it with [vital air] in brackets. After all, we cannot possibly make our meaning always obvious to those who have no previous knowledge of our subjects of discussion. And we presume that, after we have given such words, with their explanations, several times, that our readers to whom they were new, will be so good as to recollect them, and not oblige us to be always exhibiting "line upon line." With all our care to adapt our writings to every capacity, there will be some articles which every reader cannot comprehend, although some other articles less scientific and more practical, may be exactly fitted for his particular use. No reasonable guest will find fault with an entertainment because some of the dishes happen to be too highly seasoned, or otherwise not agreeable to his taste, if there are other substantial and wholesome viands, which correspond with his palate.

FOREIGN.

News from Cadiz has been received as late as the 22d of June. On the 12th the Cortes, then sitting at Seville, informed the King that circumstances required his removal to Cadiz. Ferdinand replied that his conscience and love for his people as a king, would not allow him to go; but that as an individual, he would make any kind of sacrifice. The Cortes immediately made choice of a Regency, by whose orders the king was escorted to Cadiz, followed by the Cortes, the Regency, &c. On the 14th the king arrived at Cadiz, was received with acclamations, and presented with the city keys. On the 16th the regency was dissolved, and the king restored to his authority.

As soon as the Cortes and the troops had left Seville, the people rose *en masse*, and for three days committed great excesses on the property of the Constitutionalists, who had left the place. They were, however, dispersed by Gen. Lopez Bancs, who levied a contribution of $50,000 on the clergy, by way of atonement for the excesses of the populace. The French had not reached Seville at the date of the last accounts. The Cortes were in session at Cadiz, determined to defend that place to the last extremity.

On the 18th, at Cadiz, the Minister of War *ad interim*, Don Stanislaus Vanchez Salvador, was found dead, with his throat cut with a razor. A note written with his own hand was found in a window of his chamber, in which he stated his intention of destroying himself; observing that life was becoming every day more insupportable to him—that his conscience did not accuse him of ever having committed crime or offence, and that he mentioned this in order that no other person may be in any manner accused or implicated.

At the last session of the British Society for the Encouragement of Arts, Manufactures and Commerce, a premium of thirty guineas was granted to Messrs. Cowley & Staines, of Winslow, Berks, for preparing one hundred and forty-three pounds of Opium, from poppies raised in England.

There are now nineteen counties in England, into which the tread mill has been introduced; and it has uniformly followed, that those persons who have been subject to the discipline of that machine, have, at the expiration of the terms of their imprisonment, shown a strong disposition to forsake their former dissolute habits, and have returned into society with improved ideas of rectitude and morality.—*Portsmouth Journal.*

The daughter of a Greek, called *Spartar*, has traversed the islands in the garb of a warrior, and called upon the young men to enlist under the banners of their country. She recruited, by her activity and enthusiastick eloquence, sixteen companies of 50 men each, placed herself at the head, and proceeded with them to *Napoli di Fomania.*

DOMESTIC.

Melancholy.—A trading and hunting party, consisting of about 75 Americans, commanded by Gen. Ashley, left St. Louis last spring for the Rocky Mountains. On the 2d of June, 2 or 3 hundred miles above the Council Bluffs, they were attacked by the Recaras Indians, who killed 14 of the American party, and wounded 9. Gen. Ashley then took post, with one boat and thirty men, a few miles below where the attack was made, and sent his wounded and disaffected men back to the Council Bluffs. Col. Leavenworth, by order of Gen. Atkinson, marched from the Council Bluffs on the 22d of June, with a body of troops and friendly Indians, to punish the Recaras, who were reported to have taken post and fortified themselves.

Three daughters of Mr. Marcus Robbins, of Hampton, Vt. lately spun, in one day, 345 knots of good woollen yarn, or 115 knots each.

Two young cattle lately died in Pawlet, Vt. in consequence of eating dried black cherry leaves. The leaves operated as a very powerful poison.

American Duck.—We have just examined several specimens of this article from the manufactory of Mr. George Johnson, Salem, Mass. This Duck doubtless possesses, in every respect, the superiority over any of foreign manufacture—being made of pure flax, every thread, both warp and filling *doubled* and *twisted*, without the addition of any glutinous or acrid substance which might expose it to mildew. Of its strength and durability the highest commendation is furnished by the government of the United States, who have contracted for its exclusive use in the navy—after testing its utility by satisfactory experiment. We confidently recommend it to the notice of merchants and ship owners in this place.—*Nantucket Enquirer.*

A young man of Mercer, (Pa.) having been to grind a scythe, on his return, being on horseback, and carrying the scythe crossways before him, the horse started, and the heel of the scythe caught a bush, which drew it across the young man and cut him in so shocking a manner as to cause instant death.

How to cure a Wen.—A gentleman of Baltimore, who for 14 or 16 years was plagued with a wen on his head, for which he could find no cure, happened a short time ago in a frolick with a *young Irishman* to receive a severe blow directly upon the excrescence, which entirely removed it. The operater is very willing to try his skill in any other cases that may offer.

Tow Cloth.—There is no article of domestic manufacture so much wanted as stout Tow Cloth. The filling and the warp should be of equal firmness and size, and full forty inches wide, as this article is principally wanted for bailing up Domestic Cotton Goods. It need not be very fine, but it should be very stout and firm. Our New Hampshire friends are particularly requested to attend to these remarks, as the Tow Cloth which comes from that State is so thin and *sleazy* that no manufacturer of Cotton Goods will buy it.—*Centinel.*

A Great Shark.—A Shark, when alive, measuring from 12 to 13 feet in length, and weighing about 1000 pounds, was presented to the Alexandria Museum, by Capt. Joseph Marbury, of that town. This monster of the deep was taken by the donor, in the Atlantick Ocean, and is supposed to be the largest ever preserved for any museum in the United States.

Several buildings were injured by lightning during the storm last Monday evening.

PRICES OF COUNTRY PRODUCE, &c.

[Revised and corrected every Friday.]

		FROM		TO	
		D.	C.	D.	C.
ASHES, pot, 1st qual.	ton.	130	00	135	00
pearl do.		135	00	000	00
BEANS, white,	bush		90	1	00
BEEF, mess, 200 cwt.	bbl.	9	00	9	50
cargo, No 1,	"	8	25	8	50
" No 2,		6	75	7	00
BUTTER, inspect. 1st qual.	lb.		11		12
" 2d qual.			9		10
small kegs, family,			13		14
CHEESE, new milk			7		8
FLAX			8		9
FLAX SEED	bush		75		78
FLOUR, Baltimore, superfine,	bbl.	7	62	7	75
Genessee		7	62	7	75
Rye, best		4	50	4	62
GRAIN, Rye	bush		68		70
Corn			60		62
Barley			68		70
Oats			37		40
HOGS' LARD, 1st sort	lb.		9		10
HOPS, No 1,			8		12
LIME,	cask	1	12	1	25
OIL, Linseed, American	gal.		65		00
PLAISTER PARIS	ton.	2	75	3	00
PORK, Navy Mess	bbl.	12	00	12	50
Bone Middlings		14	50	15	00
Cargo, No 1,		12	00	12	50
Cargo, No 2,		11	00	11	50
SEEDS, Herd's Grass	bush	2	00		
Clover	lb.		8		9
WOOL, Merino, full blood, washed			55		60
do do unwashed			45		50
do 3-4 washed			50		55
do 1-2 do			42		45
Native do			35		37
Pulled, Lamb's, 1st sort			55		60
do Spinning, 1st sort			50		55
PROVISION MARKET.					
BEEF, best pieces	lb.		8		10
PORK, fresh			7		8
VEAL,			6		8
LAMB,			5		7
POULTRY,			10		12
BUTTER, keg & tub			13		14
lump, best			18		20
EGGS,	doz.		14		16
MEAL, Rye,	bush		75		80
Indian,			75		
POTATOES, new,		1	00		
CIDER, liquor,	bbl.	1	50	2	25
HAY, best,	ton.	18	00	20	00

From the New York Observer.

FALLS OF THE MOHAWK.

The following lines, written by the celebrated Thomas Moore, at the Cohoes, or Falls of the Mohawk river, contain many beautiful images, derived from river scenery. The language and thoughts are characterized by that liquidity and exactness for which all Moore's poems are distinguished. The country in the immediate vicinity of the Cohoes has a peculiarly wild and dreary character; and when the sun is in the right position, a fine rainbow is painted on the spray, which is continually rising from below the falls. These circumstances explain the allusions in the verses. We wish that all Moore's poetry was as free from an immoral tendency.

From rise of morn till set of sun,
I've seen the mighty Mohawk run;
And, as I mark the woods of pine
Along his mirror darkly shine,
Like tall and gloomy forms that pass
Before the wizards midnight glass;
And, as I viewed the hurrying pace
With which he ran his turbid race;
Rushing, alike, untir'd and wild,
Thro' shades that frown'd and flowers that smil'd,
Flying by every green recess
That woo'd him to its calm caress;
Yet, something turning with the wind,
As if to leave one look behind:
Oh! I have thought—and thinking sigh'd—
How like to thee, thou restless tide!
May be the lot—the life of him
Who roams along thy water's brim;
Through what alternate shades of woe,
And flow'rs of joy, my path may go;
How many an humble, wild retreat
May rise to court my weary feet,
While still pursuing—still unblest,
I wander on nor dare to rest;
But urgent as the doom that calls
Thy water to its destin'd falls,
I see the world's bewildering force
Hurry my heart's devoted course
From lapse to lapse, till life be done,
And the lost current cease to run.

Oh! may my falls be bright as thine:
May Heav'n's forgiving rainbow shine
Upon the mist that circles me,
As soft as now it hangs o'er thee!

Singular recovery of a Female unjustly executed!

The following account of the case of a poor girl, who was unjustly executed in 1766, is given by a celebrated French author, as an instance of the injustice which was often committed by the equivocal mode of trial used in France.

"About seventeen years since, a young peasant girl, possessed of a very agreeable figure, was placed at Paris in the service of a man depraved by all the vices consequent on the corruption of great cities. Smitten with her charms, he tried every method to seduce her; but she was virtuous, and resisted. The prudence of this girl only irritated the passion of her master, who, not being able to make her submit to his desires, determined on the most black and horrible revenge. He secretly conveyed into her box many things belonging to him, marked with his name. He then exclaimed that he was robbed, called in a commissaire (a ministerial officer of justice) and made his deposition. The girl's box was searched, and the things were discovered. The unhappy servant was imprisoned. She defended herself only by her tears; she had no evidence to prove that she did not put the property in her box; and her only answer to the interrogatories was, that she was innocent. The judges had no suspicion of the depravity of the accuser, whose station was respectable, and they administered the law in all its rigor; a rigor undoubtedly excessive, which ought to disappear from our code to give place to a simple but certain penalty which leave fewer crimes unpunished. The innocent girl was condemned to be hanged. The dreadful office was ineffectually performed, as it was the first attempt of the son of the great executioner. A surgeon had purchased the body for dissection, and it was conveyed to his house. On that evening, being about to open her head, he perceived a gentle warmth about the body. The dissecting knife fell from his hand, and he placed in his bed her whom he was about to dissect. His efforts to restore her to life were effectual; and at the same time he sent for a priest, on whose discretion and experience he could depend, in order to consult with him on this strange event, as well as to have him for a witness to his conduct. The moment the unfortunate girl opened her eyes, she believed herself in the other world, and perceiving the figure of the priest, who had a marked and majestic countenance (for I know him, and it is from him that I have this fact,) she joined her hands tremblingly, and exclaimed 'Eternal Father, you know my innocence—have pity on me!' In this manner she continued to invoke the Ecclesiastic, believing, in her simplicity, that she beheld her God. They were long in persuading her that she was not dead—so much had the idea of the punishment and of death possessed her imagination. Nothing could be more touching and more expressive than the cry of an innocent being, who thus approached towards him whom she regarded as her Supreme Judge; and, independently of her affecting beauty, this single spectacle was sufficient to create the most lively interest in the breast of an observing and sensible man. What a scene for a painter! What a moral for a philosopher! What a lesson for a legislator!

The servant having returned to life, recognised a man in him whom she had adored, and who directed her prayers towards the only adorable Being, quitted the house of the surgeon, who was doubly unquiet on her account and his own. She retired to hide herself in a distant village, fearing to meet the Judges, or the Officers, who, with the dreadful tree, incessantly haunted her imagination. The villanous accuser remained unpunished, because his crime, though manifested to the eyes of two individual witnesses, was not so clear to the eyes of the Magistrates and of the laws. The people subsequently became acquainted with the resuscitation of this girl, and loaded with reproaches the execrable author of her misery; but, in this immense city, his offence was soon forgotten, and the monster perhaps still breathes;—at least, he has not publicly suffered the punishment which he deserves.

Industry.—It is an immutable decree, that the oil of gladness shall brighten the face of industry alone. For how much virtue and happiness are not men indebted to that constitution of things, which imposes upon them an obligation to *act* and to *refrain*.

From the Amherst (N. H.) Cabinet of August 2.

The following remarkable event occurred at Bedford, on Thursday of last week. A young girl, of about 14 years of age, was assisting in the taking away of grain in the sheaf upon a scaffold on the great beams of the barn, when she accidentally fell from the scaffold, a descent of 7 or 8 feet, on to a stake of the cart which had just been unloaded. The stake entered her body, passed up the rectum, and came out on the left side near the breast, so that she was completely transfixed upon it. The stake was so attached to others by the rave of the cart as that it could not be removed until the others were broken off, when it was forced from its socket in the cart, and the girl carried out of the barn before it could be extricated from her. During all which time the girl held on by the top of the stake which had passed through her side sufficient for her to take hold of with both hands, six or seven inches at least. A more distressing situation cannot easily be imagined. The length of the stake which passed into her body measured full 27 inches; and in circumference was 5 inches at the largest, and at least 3 inches in the smallest part of it. And what is equally remarkable, the girl is doing very well, and likely speedily to recover—and has apparently undergone less suffering than could possibly be conceived of in such a case.

Prom the Providence Gazette.

A remarkable instance of malice in a horse owned by a person near this town, we have heard related on good authority. A person a few years since was in the habit, whenever he wished to catch his horse, to take a quantity of corn in a measure, when, calling to him, the horse would come up and eat the corn while the bridle was put over his head. But the owner having deceived the animal several times by calling him when he had no corn in the measure, the horse at length began to *suspect* his design—and coming up one day as usual, on being called, looked into the measure, and seeing it empty, turned round, reared his hind legs, and killed his owner on the spot.

Webb, the celebrated walker, who was remarkable for vigor both of body and mind, drank nothing but water. He was one day recommending his regimen to a friend who loved wine, and urged him with great earnestness to quit a course of luxury by which his health and his intellect would be equally destroyed. The gentleman appeared to be convinced, and told him that he would conform to his council, though he could not change his course of life at once, but would leave off strong liquors by degrees. "By degrees!" exclaims Webb, "if you should unhappily fall into the fire, would you caution your servants to pull you out by degrees?"

TERMS OF THE FARMER.

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